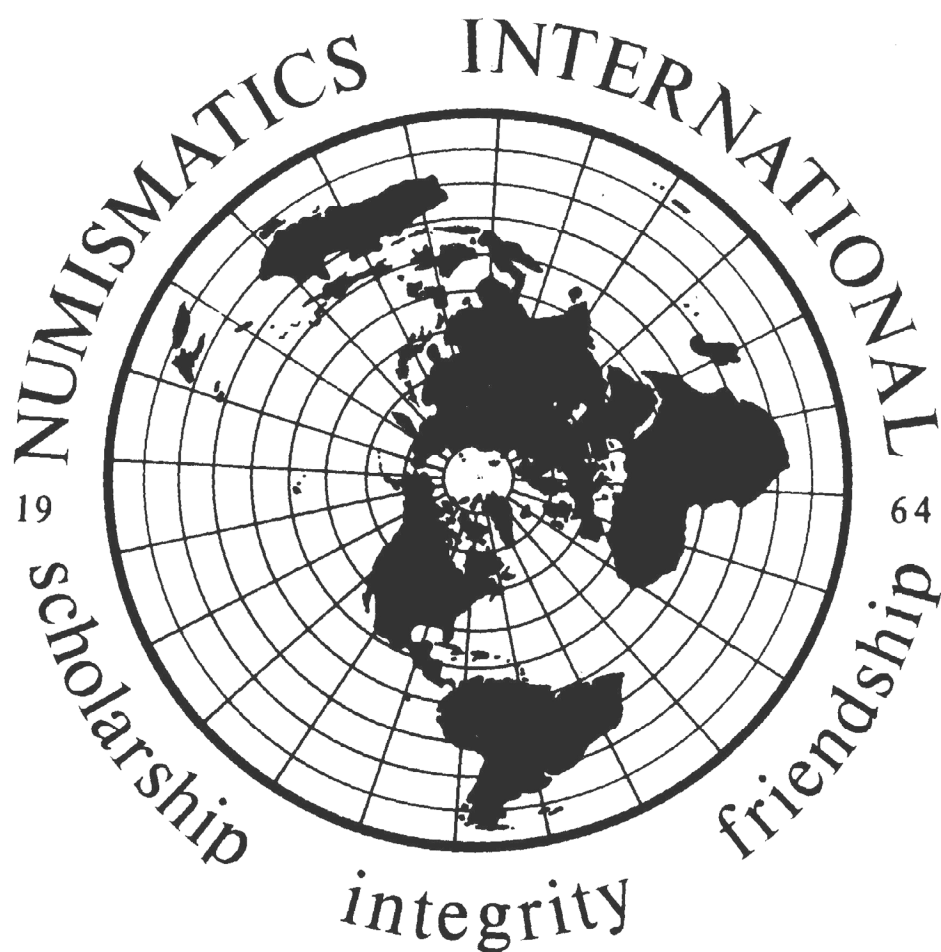


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As previously announced, NI intends to start publishing the Bulletin bi-monthly. This is the first combined edition; I hope you enjoy the format. My backlog of articles is very light, so if you want to contribute an article, please send it to me, my contact information is on the inside front cover.

Herman Blanton



NI Educational Programs

National Money Show, Phoenix Arizona, March 7-9, 2008

The Numismatic International Education Program Moderator, Howard A. Daniel III, manned a club table for NI (and IBNS, NBS & PCF), where 281 packets of world coins (and a banknote from IBNS) were given to young and new numismatists in the name of NI. There were about 20 references given to new collectors, scout counselors and teachers. About fifty serious collectors also stopped to discuss NI and/or the other three societies.

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The Arequipa Mint

Horace Flatt, NI #LM136

The Arequipa Mint 1835-1841

Introduction

Peruvian coins bearing a mintmark symbolic of Arequipa, Peru's second largest city, were made during the period from 1836 until 1841. From its inception, the mint made debased coins in accord with secret orders issued by Andrés Santa Cruz, president of Bolivia and head of the Peru-Bolivian Confederation. After the demise of the Confederation, the issuance of debased coins was forbidden. A combination of political factors and the lack of profitability of the mint led to its closing in 1841.

Some of the early history of the mint is related in a prior article (Gianelloni 1972). The present study outlines the conditions which led to the establishment of the Arequipa mint, the problems of its construction and operation, and the circumstances which led to its closing. Significant information is provided concerning the actual number of coins made at the mint.

Early Background

Although a mint did not open in Arequipa until 1836, proposals for construction of a mint had been made many times. In fact, in 1556, the Viceroy Hurtado de Mendoza proposed that the first mint in Peru be established in Arequipa (Medina 1919, 99). Ultimately, as documented by Dargent (Dargent 1988, 50-1), the king decided that the mint should be established in Lima. However, there were still advocates for a mint in Arequipa who were hoping to forestall discussions favoring mints in La Plata or Potosí (Cunietti-Ferrando 1989, 52).

One of the most significant reasons for a mint in Arequipa was the presence of some very rich silver mines in the surrounding area. The principal ones were those of Huantajaya and Santa Rosa bordering on the desert of Atacama in the district of Arica and Cailloma (or Caylloma) in the valley of the Apurimac River to the northward of the city of Arequipa. Silver had originally been discovered at Huantajaya in the middle of the sixteenth century, but this resource was not really exploited for about two centuries. At that time, the district's principal vein of silver was discovered and a boom developed, but by the end of the eighteenth century, a decline had set in. Supplies had to be brought for a long distance and water was scarce, necessitating the use of smelting rather than the cheaper and more efficient patio process used in other mining areas in Peru. Similarly, by the same time, a decline in production had occurred at Caylloma, where silver had been discovered in the 1620s. During peak years as much as 100,000 marks of silver were produced at Caylloma, but by the end of the eighteenth century, all of the mines in the department produced only about 65,000 to 80,000 marks of silver (a mark of silver weighed eight Spanish ounces, i.e., 230.04565 grams). Of Peru's 670 silver mines actually operating at that time, only about 55 were in the department of Arequipa (Wibel 1975, 71).

As a part of the intense British speculation in silver mining in Peru and Bolivia at the end of the war for independence, the British merchant William Hodgson contracted in 1825 with the de La Fuente family for the exploitation of the mines in the Huantajaya district. In spite of this and other investments in the area, mining in the department continued to be plagued by the shortage of capital, high costs of supplies and labor, and the disorganization that had characterized colonial mining. Arequipa's total production of silver seldom amounted to more than 10,000 marks a year during the first decades of the Republic (Wibel 1975, 375).

Even with silver nearby, there was a shortage of coins for commercial transactions in the southern part of Peru. The silver from Caylloma and Huantajaya had to be transported 240 leagues (720 miles) to Cuzco to be minted at a time when transportation was both difficult and expensive. The miners had to either abandon their mines or sell the ore at a minimal price. While he was still prefect in Arequipa in early 1829, Antonio Gutiérrez de La Fuente had advanced a proposal to establish a mint in that city. However, if the bullion were diverted from Cuzco, there was also the danger of paralyzing the work of the mint there. This problem, along with the general lack of capital for the construction and operation of a mint, forestalled action on La Fuente's request at that time (Rivera 1959, 406).

The clandestine trade in bullion was large in the southern part of Peru. La Fuente claimed that as much as eighty per cent of the silver mined near Arequipa was never reported (Wibel 1975, 375). The actions taken by the Government in the period 1829-31 to stimulate the mining industry, including the law authorizing a mint at Arequipa were ineffective. The particular problems associated with Arequipa were described in 1832 by Juan Bernardo Valdivieso (the same person who had at an earlier time proposed the establishment of a mint at Pasco). In that year, Valdivieso was the accountant of the treasury of Ayacucho. There was fever in Ayacucho, and Valdivieso had been permitted to go to Cuzco on account of his health. He carried out a critical review of the operations of the Cuzco mint for the Finance Minister (A.G.N. O.L. 216-478, 216-480) and sent a proposal to him for the establishment of a mint in Arequipa (A.G.N. O.L. 216-484, 27 August 1832). He pointed out that the mines of Puno were only 50 leagues from Arequipa and that the Bolivian mines at Tipuaní were only an additional 52 leagues. While it was illegal for the Bolivians to ship their bullion out of the country, the distance from these mines to the mint at Potosí was about 200 leagues; he suggested that this shorter distance would be an incentive to ignore that law. Other bullion for the mint would be obtained from the mines near Arequipa through a lessening of the trade in contraband. Valdivieso argued that there was an abundance of combustibles for the smelting operations as well as easy access to the copper that was necessary. He pointed out that the mint regulations of 1830 did not prohibit private individuals from running a mint, although earlier Spanish ordinances did (Reglamento 1830). A loan estimated to be from 50,000 to 70,000 pesos was required to initiate the operations of the mint.

Valdivieso stated that the fineness of the coins should be the same as those made in Lima, but that at least a quarter of each rendition should be in *medios* (half reales) and reales.¹ While Valdivieso's proposal was not accepted, it reinforced the arguments for a

¹ The word "rendition" is used as a collective noun for the coins of a particular denomination, or batch produced in the mint from a (usually) specified amount of bullion.

mint at Arequipa that would be in a better geographic position to help meet the need for coins in the south of Peru, particularly the smaller coins used in the daily commerce of the markets.

The shortage of these small coins had led to the practice of cutting larger coins into smaller pieces to provide the "coins" needed for everyday commerce. These cut coins were of very uncertain value, though usually of smaller value than represented by their holders. Both merchants and the Departmental Treasury had suffered significant losses thereby (A.G.N. O.L. 277-413, 12 April 1840). The circulation of the cut coins was the paramount reason for the renewed pressure in 1835 to establish a mint in Arequipa.

Political Background

Anarchy prevailed in Peru in the first months of 1835. The constitutional president of Peru, General José Luis Orbegoso, was in the southern part of Peru attempting to unite the country following the unsuccessful rebellion against his authority by an earlier president, General Agustín Gamarra. From his headquarters in Arequipa, Orbegoso learned of another rebellion at Callao led by General Felipe Santiago Salaverry, followed shortly by a new rebellion in Cuzco. Gamarra, who had fled into exile in Bolivia, returned to Cuzco to assume command there. Although the president of Bolivia, General Andrés de Santa Cruz, had originally supported Gamarra, he now threw his support to Orbegoso, signing a treaty of assistance with him on 15 June 1835.

Santa Cruz then invaded Peru, defeating first Gamarra and then Salaverry. His effective control of Peru allowed him to fulfill a long-held objective, the union of Peru and Bolivia under his leadership. Peru was divided into the two independent states of North and South Peru. On 28 October 1836, Santa Cruz decreed the establishment of the Peru-Bolivian Confederation composed of Bolivia, Estado Sud-Peruano (South Peru State), and Estado Nor-Peruano (North Peru State), thereby culminating a decade of plans and intrigue by Santa Cruz and others. It was to be a short-lived state, ruled by the decrees of Santa Cruz and effectively ended by the battle of Yungay on 20 January 1839 when Peruvian and Chilean forces led by Gamarra routed Santa Cruz and his adherents. A detailed description of this period is available (Parkerson 1984).

Decree of 1835

Perhaps Orbegoso's residence in Arequipa increased his understanding of the problems of the area and perhaps he wished to do something in return for its political support. In any case, shortly after Orbegoso had ratified the treaty of assistance with Santa Cruz, he issued from his headquarters in Arequipa the following decree of 29 June 1835 (*El Republicano*, 11 July 1835):

Considering the proposals for the installation of an office of minting coins in this city made by the citizens Don Hermenegildo Garayochea and Don Jacinto Ybañez, and by the coiners Don Juan de Dios Espejo, Don Victor Bouzonde and Don Toribio Espejo that was disclosed by the Prefect of the department and the treasury minister—It is approved in all its parts that Don Hermenegildo Garaycochea made under the condition that while he fulfills that which has been offered at the end of four months, the three coiners would begin to mint small

coins of both gold and silver within thirty days from this date, for there would be delivered of course the machines that were confiscated by the tribunal of first petition and they would have free that which they lacked and which they would have constructed. Send to the prefect of the department in order that all the regulations necessary to the most prompt establishment of the coin press, as also to set the guarantees that the coiners ought to offer in order to inspire the public confidence and to need the correspondents in order that both Garaycochea and the coiners would comply with their respective settlements.

Apparently some counterfeiters had been arrested and found guilty. Upon their conviction, the prefect, General Anselmo Quiróz, recognizing that the tools and instruments that had been seized would be needed for the mint to be established, ordered that they should not be sold, giving as a further reason the further danger that they might fall into the hands of other counterfeiters (B.N. D10190, 7 May 1835). About a week later, Orbegoso ordered that Ybañez be permitted to view the tools so that he could make a proposal for the construction of the coin press (B. N. D10190, 15 May 1835).

The Departmental Treasury contributed 1580 pesos, as well some 16 quintals (about 1600 pounds) of copper and 3 quintals of tin to be used in the construction of the coin press (A.G.N. O.L. 277-412, 12 April 1840). Quiróz wrote to Orbegoso on August 4 that the installation of the mint offered "insuperable" difficulties unless a knowledgeable Director was appointed. He suggested Pedro Paz who was then in the Lima mint. As there was apparently no response, the request was renewed on 18 August, but on 22 August, Orbegoso named José Timoteo del Pozo as the provisional director of the mint because of his "honesty and known reputation." Pozo was the retired accountant of the Arequipa treasury. His advanced age and lack of knowledge led Quiróz to again suggest to Orbegoso that Paz be named. However, the Secretary General of Orbegoso reconfirmed the nomination of Pozo on August 29 (Villegas 1985, 453). Nonetheless, a decree of 6 October 1835, appointed Dr. Evaristo Vargas as the interim Director of the Arequipa mint (*El Republicano*, 21 October 1835), and three days later Mariano Valdez y Hurtado was appointed as assayer (Villegas 1985, 454). It would appear that nothing had happened until that time despite the requirements laid down in the decree of June. However, later reports show that Vargas did initiate work on the machinery required for the mint (*El Republicano*, 21 May 1836). The account of Benavides shows that a much greater source for the mint machinery was the Lima mint which sent 130 boxes of machinery valued at some 10,000 pesos and paid for by the Government (A.G.N. O.L. 277-412, 12 April 1840). Apparently the debt to the Lima mint had been reduced to only 1,168 pesos by 23 April 1837 (A.G.N. O.L. 259-3).

It is evident from the historical background given above that there were many other factors which were to affect the future of the nascent mint. Of these, the one directly affecting the coinage was the Assembly of Sicuani. This assembly had proclaimed the independence of South Peru, but also made decisions leading to a decree specifying a new coin design (Flatt 1992). The first coins of Arequipa appeared after that assembly and technically were produced by the new state of Estado Sud-Peruano, although they conformed to the original republican design. These coins were the medios, first appearing about April 1836 and the four reales or *cuatro* initially made in August 1836. The design of both used the standing maiden on the reverse and the Peruvian shield on the reverse. However, the coins were debased, having a fineness of only 0.667 (eight

dineros, a dinero is one twelfth) rather than the legally required 0.903 (ten dineros twenty grains). The mintmark used was **AREQ** and the assayer's initial was **M**, representing Mariano Valdez, who remained the assayer of the Arequipa mint throughout its history. On some coins which appeared at a later date, the initials **MV** were used.



Arequipa 1836 Half-Real (Medio), 17 mm



Arequipa 1836 Four Reales (Cuatro), 33 mm

The story of the difficulties which were overcome in the production of these coins is almost of as much interest as the coins themselves and is covered in part in the 21 May 1836 issue of *El Republicano*. The editorial introducing two letters by the interim Director Evaristo Vargas spoke highly of the enthusiasm and dedication of the young men who were directing the work of the mint, and of the problems they had encountered. The coin press which had just been used to make the medios reported in the 5 May letter of Vargas had apparently been under construction for eight months by two "good" workers (possibly the Chilean brothers Espejo, Juan and Toribio) who had labored without any wages, asking only reimbursement of the cost of materials. This seems to indicate construction had started about the time Vargas had assumed responsibility for the mint. The primary material for the press had apparently come from some useless bells. Other workers with specific expertise had constructed some of the needed tools, again donating the cost of their labor. All together, Vargas estimated that less than six hundred pesos had been expended in the construction of the tools and machinery needed to mint the medios. However, note the account of Benavides mentioned above.

While Vargas mentioned the war and its consequent problems, particularly the lack of money which had so hampered their operations, the primary difficulty encountered appeared to center on the rolling machine used to reduce the strips of silver to the proper thickness for the planchets which were subsequently cut from them. This was done by drawing the strip between rollers which were placed successively closer together. It seems the Government had confiscated a machine capable of being used for this purpose (see above in the decree which awarded the contract for the operation of the mint); but that the cylinders used in the machine were so small they could not withstand the stress placed upon them and therefore broke frequently. Vargas mentioned in his letter of 5 May that the mint had not been in operation for seven days because of this breakage (and hence the dating of April 1836 for the production of the medios). He concluded that larger cylinders were needed for the rolling machine if a reliable operation was to be conducted.

In closing his letter of 5 May to the Prefect (Quiróz), he argued that funds should be made available in order to exchange coins for the bullion of the miners, for otherwise they would sell the bullion to foreigners (presumably as a part of the clandestine traffic). Without the bullion, the mint could not operate and the State would lose the profit that was contemplated. He also noted the need for a second coin press in order to mint cuatros and even perhaps pesos.

In the letter of 13 May to the Prefect, greater optimism was evident. Some damage to the coin press had been repaired and it was by then operating very reliably. Vargas was looking forward to the assembly of the new press for the larger coins and requested that the Prefect accept proposals to that end. It was noted in the same issue of *El Republicano* that individuals wishing to submit proposals should send them to the Prefect within eight days.

A subsequent letter to the Prefect dated 30 May (*El Republicano*, 4 June 1836), signed by nine employees of the mint (Evaristo Vargas, José Antonio Berenguel, Mariano Valdez y Hurtado, Toribio Espejo, Jacinto Ybañez, Nicolas Arrisueño, Juan de Dios Espejo, Manuel Antonio del Rivero and Nicolas Delgado) made the offer to forego wages for the next three months in order to help get the money together for the new coin press. A reply dated 2 July from the Finance Minister of the Estado Sud-Peruano, Andrés Maria Torrico, commended the generosity of the workers of the mint, accepted their offer, but committed that the wages would be paid when the revenues of the mint permitted (*El Republicano*, 13 August 1836).

On 8 June 1836, Mariano Cossío was appointed *Director-Contador* (Accounting Director) of the Arequipa mint by Santa Cruz (*El Republicano*, 23 July 1836). This same order made clear the official positions held by others: Evaristo Vargas as treasurer, Juan de Dios Espejo as engraver, Mariano Valdez y Hurtado as assayer and the *fiel* (inspector) Jacinto Ybañez.

An inventory signed by Vargas dated 26 July 1836 showed that work had been done on preparing dies for *pesetas* (two reales) as well as the medios that had already been made (Archivo Departamental del Arequipa [A.D.A.] Prefectura, 26-VII-1836). Because of the date, this work probably represented the standing liberty design as only recently had the

new surface design been specified. However, there is no record that pesetas with the standing liberty design were ever produced in Arequipa.

Juan de Dios Espejo and Toribio Espejo submitted a proposal in response to the request of the Prefect for the construction of the machinery needed for the minting of the cuatros. The proposal was transmitted by Vargas to the Prefect and a notation was made that it was approved on 27 July; the actual contract was signed on 12 August with Jacinto Ybañez and the Espejo brothers (A.D.A. Prefectura, 26-VII-1836).

In the meantime, Quiróz issued a decree which ended the acceptance of the cut reales by the Departmental Treasury as of the first of August 1836. The holders of these coins were to present them to the *Casa de Moneda* (mint) together with three times their weight in bullion. These holders were then to be reimbursed with the new and, unknown to the citizens, debased coins to be minted. The circulation of cut Bolivian reales was also prohibited, but they were not to be accepted at the mint (*El Republicano*, 3 August 1836). There was clearly no financial advantage to be gained by the recall of the cut Bolivian coins, since they were already debased. In the next three years, over 28,680 marks of cut coins were amortized, being converted into 232, 518 pesos, 7-1/2 reales. A loss of over 34,075 pesos was attributed to the operation (A.G.N. O.L. 277-413, 12 April 1840).

Preparations for the minting of the four reales continued, but money to pay for the costs of the required machinery continued to be a problem. Ultimately, fourteen citizens and one company each loaned the mint 200 pesos for a period of five months without interest. The loan was to be secured by bonds on the customs house at Islay, while those that loaned the money were to be given preferential treatment in the redemption of the cut money they brought to the mint (*El Republicano*, August 27, 1836). However, they probably lost money even if they did not know it, for, as we have noted, the mint at Arequipa followed the example of the Cuzco mint and issued debased coins.

Valdez had written the Director inquiring as to the regulations to be followed in the mint. In particular, Article 41 of the Regulations of 24 April 1830, required a bond of 4,000 pesos for the assayer of the mint. The response through the Prefect came from the Council of Ministers of South Peru and illustrates the duplicity of the Government of the time as far as the debased coinage is concerned. A circular dated 2 October 1836, gave the reply (*El Republicano*, 5 November 1836):

Estado Sud-Peruano, Finance Ministry Office
Palace of the Supreme Government in Cuzco

October 2, 1836. Circular to His Most Illustrious Lordship the Prefect of the Department of Arequipa.

Sr. Prefect

The regulations of the mints and all the laws relative to the regulation of those establishments are the result of the practices that never or very rarely are subject to change. The number of employees, their responsibilities, the administration of the funds, its accountability and finally all the established methods in order that there will be good faith, order and regularity in the mints are the result of observations

constantly made that have come to be unvarying rules without whose observation it is not possible to attain the advantages that these establishments ought to produce nor to avoid the evils that come to pass separate from those.

Their Excellencies the Council of Ministers penetrating to this truth and informed that the regulations of the mints and the decrees that modify it are falling into disuse, with prejudice to the service, orders:

1. That the regulations of April 24, 1830 be complied with punctually and the decrees and orders afterwards concerning the matter neither without excuses nor any pretexts.
2. That the infraction of those will be punished with the deprivation of the transgressors of their employment, without prejudicing the imposition of the greatest penalties corresponding to the infractions:
3. That at the foot of the monthly and yearly status reports that the Director should send to this ministry, official certification of the fulfillment of this order.
4. That this order, as soon as it has been received by the Director, will be read in an assembly of all employees of the establishment in the presence of the directors and financial group.

God preserve your Excellency
Andrés María Torrico.

It is obvious that the primary objective of this circular was the deception of the public, for the minting of the debased coins had both been underway for some time and was to continue. A certificate dated November 4 showed that Valdez had deposited the required bond of 4,000 pesos (A.D.A. Prefectura, 26-VII-1836).

Early in 1837 we see a very outward sign of the changed financial fortunes of the Arequipa mint. The New Year had opened with a continued high level (for Arequipa) of minting of the *moneda feble* (or simply *feble*, small debased silver coins), although Benavides saw the minting still proceeding slowly (A.G.N. O.L. 277-413, 12 April 1840). The prospective profits that were then seen to be derived from such minting apparently gave the mint officials the necessary confidence to inquire of the vice-consul of France the cost of some additional machinery. This included a drawing machine capable of being worked by water or mules, a machine to cut the planchets from the strips of alloy, a milling machine, and a lathe (*El Republicano*, 25 February 1837). The need for them was underlined by a notation on April 4, 1837, that the mint could not operate continuously because of the lack of a drawing machine (A.D.A. Prefectura, 26-VII-1836). Some tools and cylinders valued at 1,168 pesos were definitely secured through the Lima mint (A.G.N. O.L. 259-3, 23 April 1837). It is not known whether these tools were in addition to those described above.

On this same date, a new proposal for machinery was received from the Espejo brothers. Two days later, 6 April, another proposal was received from Miguel Bradbury Hackett (a citizen of Boston, USA). Hackett's proposal was considered better because of his assurance that by the end of two months there would be assembled some cylinders that been sent from Lima. Further, a new press capable of minting 5,000 pesos in twelve

hours of work would be constructed. Hackett promised that within six months it would be possible to mint 10,000 pesos in twelve hours, or larger amounts of smaller coins (12,000 cuatros, 16,000 pesetas, 18,000 reales, or 20,000 medios in twelve hours). Hackett agreed to cover all costs of the operation of the mint, including the cost of punches and dies as well as combustibles. The machinery was to be capable of operation either through the use of water power or by beasts, according to the location selected for the mint. The term of the agreement was set at six years, at which time Hackett was to be paid three-fourths the cost of the machinery. Hackett also was to be paid 20 pesos for each 100 marks of *pesos fuertes* (full weight coin) minted or 40 pesos per 100 marks of silver minted into small coins. He offered as a security for the contract the machinery to be provided as well as 3,000 pesos guaranteed by six local merchants (A.G.N. O.L. 277-413. 12 April 1840; see also A.G.N. O.L. 279-508). On 8 May, the contract with Hackett was signed.

The mint had originally been located in the municipal offices (Villegas 1985, 453). With a growth in the activities of the mint, new quarters were needed. A rental agreement for six years was signed on 31 April 1837, for the house of Alejandro Quirós (Muñoz 1984, 75). This house, representative of the civil architecture of the eighteenth century, still stands at the corner of Ugarte and Villalba in that city. The lintel shows that it was built in 1794 by Dr. Blas de Quirós.

Apparently in concert with the ordering of the new machinery and the leasing of the new facilities, a new contract for minting was signed on 18 May 1837. No direct record of this new agreement has been located, but it is referenced in a report of 1841 (A.G.N. O.L. 283-7b, 15 May 1841).

We find in the account books of an English merchant some notations of the activity of the mint. Gibbs Crawley & Co. was the Arequipa branch of the London house of Antony Gibbs & Co. On 31 October 1837, these accounts noted that as of the end of the preceding April, the mint still owed them new coins for the cut coins which had been turned over in December 1836, saying that "as they go on so slowly in their operations, we do not expect to receive it in a month" (Guild Hall, MS 11031/2). Apparently they had turned over 4,115 pesos in December and still held 6,500 pesos in their chest. The cut coins were stated to have been bought by weight; as they were paid for in debased coins, there was an opportunity for profit by the mint if the fixed coining costs were not too great.

We have commented previously on the production of the debased cuatros in 1837 and the lack of any such coins with that date. This was the same situation as in Cuzco and we believe that the same explanation applies, that is, the cuatros made in 1837 bore the date 1836; similarly, a study of the data in the Appendix suggests that many of the medios with a date of 1836 were actually made in 1837.

Also, as may be seen from the Appendix, a great amount of debased coinage had been produced by the middle of 1837. It is at this point that a presently inexplicable event occurred. An order to the Director of the Arequipa mint dated 8 July 1837 required the utilization of the new design adopted for the coins of South Peru for the planned four reales coins. But he was also specifically excused by the Government from the requirement to use the legal fineness of ten dineros twenty grains (*Revista* (Cuzco) 1958,

444). There was a note in the margin (dated 10 July in Cuzco) that the order was to be held secret. It is clear that Cossío was concerned about the violation of the provisions of the decree of July 1836; it is not so clear why he developed concerns after such a long period of producing debased coinage in violation of much earlier laws and decrees. It is somewhat ironic that at the same time that this order was marked to be held in secret, the fact that debased coinage was being produced in the South of Peru was being acknowledged publicly in Lima (see, for example, *El Eco del Protectorado*, 12 July 1837). Thus, there appeared to be no necessity for continued secrecy, unless it was just a matter of poor communications between the two parts of the country.

A first trial of the new machinery was held on 16 August 1837. The machinery was now supposed to be capable of making 27,370 coins per 12 hour period; a significant improvement over the original specifications (Muñoz 1984, 75). However, mint records show only one rendition of the usual size following this date. It seems probable that some difficulties were encountered.

Sunface Coins

The monetary law of South Peru specified a new and very beautiful design for the coins of the new state, the so-called "sunface coins" (Flatt 1992). These coins, and their background, have been described in some detail in the referenced article, including the various changes in design. The only sunface coin produced in Arequipa in 1837 was the one-half real.



Arequipa 1838 Four Reales (Cuatro), 33 mm

More coins were produced in the Arequipa mint in 1838 than in any other year. The two, four and eight reales of the new design were produced for the first time. The pesetas were made in January, presumably with the older machinery.

The four reales were first struck on 17 February, probably using the new machinery of Hackett which was operational by 6 February 1838. A single waterwheel drove the coin press, the drawing machine, and the cutting and milling machines. The first peso was struck on 9 April "equal in weight and fineness to that of the Spanish and as well made as any of those of the Confederation" (*El Republicano*, 14 April 1838).

While there is no record of production of the half-real coin in 1838, there is a specimen in the collection of the Central Reserve Bank of Peru. The author has seen the coin, but has not had the opportunity to study it in detail.

The year 1838 was also the only one in which the two and four reales of the new design were produced in Arequipa, although the eight reales was produced in both 1838 and 1839.

The basic reason for this was brought out in a letter of 28 September 1838, from Juan de Escobedo to the prefect of Arequipa, Dr. José de Rivero (*El Republicano*, 6 October 1838). Apparently a supreme order of 13 March had ordered the production of only pesos at Arequipa, but Santa Cruz, undoubtedly yielding to the financial realities of the time, authorized the continued production of a fixed amount of feble. The Prefect had required a monthly report on the amount produced in an order of 10 May, and in his reply of 1 October to the letter of Escobedo, Rivero noted that the earlier order was being held in abeyance "pending the last striking for the minting of feble that was permitted by the Grand Marshal of Zepita (Santa Cruz) by reason of the circumstances" (*El Republicano*, 6 October 1838).

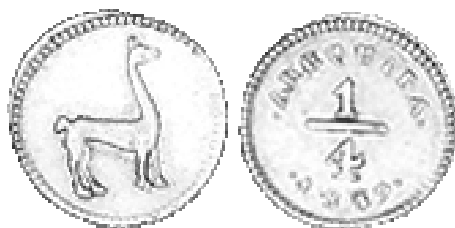
There is a second variety of the Arequipa sunface eight reales of 1838 (Sellschopp 1974, 11). The coin has a blank disc in place of the sunface. The reason for this change is not known, but the coin appears to be genuine.

The last of the sunface coins appeared in 1839. Only one specimen of the eight reales is currently known. However, see the discussion of the mintage records in the next section.

Final Years

The city of Arequipa rose in rebellion against the Confederation on 20 February 1839, naming Pedro José Gamio as Prefect (*El Peruano*, 20 March 1839). Subsequently, José Maria Benavides was appointed Director of the Arequipa mint, with Mariano Valdez continuing as assayer. This mint was a private establishment and the low level of coinage made it difficult to operate the mint profitably even producing debased coins.

We have previously noted the rare sunface peso of 1839. The data in the Appendix shows that there were three renditions of these coins prior to the rebellion. Later in the year there was a return to the use of the earlier Republican design for both the four reales and the eight reales coins. The quarter real coin was made in Arequipa in 1839, and is a very rare coin, with possibly 7 or 8 known specimens.



Arequipa 1839 Quarter-Real (Cuartillo), 13 mm

The coinage of the Confederation was creating problems for foreign commerce as well as in nations such as Nicaragua and Chile. A decree of Nicaragua dated 27 January 1840, noting that the coins of Peru and Bolivia had been examined, ordered that the coins of Arequipa (1/2 real of 1837, 2 and 4 reales of 1838), the coins of Bolivia dated 1830, and those of Cuzco since 1835 should be received only at three-quarters of their nominal value in Nicaragua (*El Republicano*, 27 June 1840). An initial order in Santiago dated 11 July 1840 (*El Republicano*, 6 September 1840) prohibited the acceptance in the fiscal offices of Chile of either the gold or silver coins of Peru dated during the time of the Confederation. This order was later modified to refer only to the minor coins of Cuzco and Arequipa (*El Republicano*, 17 October 1840).



Arequipa 1840 Four Reales (Cuatro), 33 mm

National pride as well as the effect upon internal markets and foreign commerce forced the Peruvian government to take stronger actions against the production and circulation of the moneda feble. This officially began early in 1840, for on 4 January 1840, Ramón Castilla, Finance Minister, wrote to the Prefect of the Department of Arequipa at the "express command" of Gamarra, now president of Peru, inquiring as to the status of the mint there. On 20 March 1840, Castilla wrote again, with a very sharp letter noting that no reply had been received as a result of the earlier query. He demanded on the basis of a new Supreme Order a statement of the reason by "return mail" and further ordered that all coins produced in the future be in accord with the regulations of 1830. This note was followed the next day by a new note to Prefects of both Arequipa and Cuzco which required that a summary be prepared of the weight, type, and fineness of the different coins minted in Cuzco and Arequipa between 1 January 1839 and 31 March 1840. This summary was to state who had authorized the alteration of the coinage and also was to be published in the official periodical of the Department for the information of the public (Nieto 1853, 6: 584-5).

A possible explanation of these action is given in a dispatch of British Consul General Bedford Wilson to his government (P.R.O. FO 61/82, 15 April 1841, Wilson to Palmerston).

Upon the Representation of H.M. Chargé d' Affaires, an order was issued, under date of the 20th of March, to the Prefect of Arequipa, peremptorily directing that all future issues of coin from that Mint should be in the National Standard of 10 dineros 20 grains; and this order produced the desired effect as regards that Establishment, but it would appear that, owing to some mistake, a similar order was not communicated to the prefect of Cuzco; and consequently Base coin continued to be therefore issued; but under date of the 1st of July an order to that effect was given, on Mr. B. Wilson's renewed Representation.

Wilson was acting upon information received earlier from Thomas Crompton, the vice-consul at Islay who had "privately represented that the Local Authorities at Arequipa had, as a matter of private Speculation, debased the Small coins issued from the Mint of that Department, namely half and Quarter Dollar and Rial Pieces" (P.R.O. FO 61/82, 24 March 1841, Wilson to Palmerston).

The letter of Benavides of 4 April 1840, to the Prefect said that he would comply with the Castilla's request as soon as possible. He stressed both the lack of profit to be made from the minting of coins of full fineness as well as the futility of it from the point of view of the Peruvians (A.G.N. O.L. 277-388, 4 April 1840). According to Benavides, the pesos fuertes proceeded directly from the treasury of the mint to the port of Islay, from whence they went to Europe. It may be inferred from this letter that permission to mint the debased coins in Arequipa came around 28 May 1839, from Juan Torrico, the commanding general in the Departments of the South. This inference is consistent with the records presented in the Appendix which show that the first four reales of 1839 were made in July of that year. Luque has found a decree signed by the Prefect Gamio in this period which authorizes the continued minting of the debased coins (Luque 1993, 82). This is not necessarily inconsistent; Torrico may have authorized Gamio to issue the decree.

On 18 April, Castilla wrote to the Prefect, saying that the public believed that the mint was continuing to produce debased coins in spite of his earlier order (*El Correo*, 27 April 1840). In order to settle this question, Castilla ordered that coins minted since 20 February be submitted to the *Junta de Inspección* (Inspection Board) in Lima for assay. This order is probably the source of the coins used for the assay of August 1840 previously described.

According to the currently known records, 15 April was the last date in 1840 on which coins were produced. The record of the debased coinage produced corresponding to the published record from the Cuzco mint is not now known. It was reported that Castilla's order to publish the record was never fulfilled in order to spare embarrassment to the Gamarra government. However, an overall account of the operations of the mint from 1 August 1836, until 27 October 1838 was published (*El Peruano*, 27 June 1840).

The monetary decree of 30 September 1840 finally stated the intent of the Peruvian government (Dancuart 1903, 3: 102). This decree specified that all silver coins have a fineness of 10 dineros 20 grains, and that fineness should be inscribed on the coins. This was subsequently done except on the small quarter-real coins.

Towards the end of December 1840 resentment against the rule of Gamarra resulted in a rebellion which spread quickly throughout the southern part of Peru. Colonel Manuel Ignacio Vivanco assumed leadership of the rebellion in Arequipa on 1 January 1841 (Basadre 1962, 2: 449). The garrison at Cuzco surrendered in the middle of January, and Vivanco's principal allies defected. Vivanco fell back upon Arequipa as his final refuge (P.R.O. FO 61/83, Wilson to Crompton, 30 March 1841). After Castilla rather easily drove Vivanco from Arequipa, Vivanco went into exile in Bolivia by April 1841 (Wibel 1975, 429). Subsequently Gamarra's Secretary-General wrote to the Prefect of Arequipa (Gamio) on 24 April inquiring whether during the period of the revolt any bullion had been minted and if so, whether the fineness had been altered. He also asked concerning the costs and profits and if there was any advantage to the Government of the mint remaining open. In response, Benavides wrote to Gamio on 15 May 1841 (A.G.N. O.L. 283-75). Enclosed was an important record (A.G.N. O.L. 283-76, 15 May 1841) and, subsequently, another (A.G.N. O.L. 283-74, 19 May 1841). Benavides noted that 28,557 marks of silver had been minted from 1 January 1839 until 30 April 1841 (there was an error in addition: a total of 28,578 marks was listed). The revolutionaries had minted 1,557 marks, but only in peso fuertes of fineness 10 dineros 20 grains following the order of 20 March 1840.



Arequipa 1841 Eight Reales (Peso), 40 mm

Benavides then proceeded to give some interesting insights into the history of the mint. He noted that the mint was privately operated under a contract valid for six years dating from 18 May 1837. While the Government named the employees of the mint, it paid neither the wages nor the costs of the mint.

Benavides argued that the Government had gained several benefits from the operation of the mint. One of the original purposes had been to amortize the cut reales. A total of 232,518 pesos had been converted (undoubtedly into moneda feble). It was claimed that the mint had covered the deficit of 34,075 pesos, 2 reales incurred in the operation (one could question the measure used here—the nominal or the intrinsic value). The removal of these coins and the production of others had contributed to the general business activity of the area. The bullion from the mines of Caylloma, Esquilachi, Lampa and Union had not all proceeded clandestinely to the coast, and the owners had been paid

promptly. However, in closing, Benavides stated that the employees had not been paid their full wages for over eight months (in fact, the records show that they were paid only a little over 4,643 pesos in 1839 and 5,626 pesos in 1840 (contrasted to the 6,776 pesos in 1838), and less than 490 pesos in the first four months of 1841).

Some subsequent correspondence showed that Vivanco had replaced the smelter, Manuel Muñoz Garcia, with Jacinto Ybañez, a man who really did not have the experience necessary to prepare the alloys needed for minting. Mariano Valdez had provisionally acted as smelter, but Benavides wanted to reinstate Muñoz Garcia. He noted that there was bullion in the mint, and the owners wanted payment (A.G.N. O.L. 283-85, 17 May 1841). It is clear that the intent of Benavides was to continue the operation of the mint in accord with the existing contract. Despite this intent, no more coins were struck after March 1841. The reason attributed at a much later date (1851) was the lack of sufficient silver bullion as a consequence of the decision by the Government to authorize in 1841 the shipment overseas of bars of silver upon payment of a tax which could be negotiated (Luque 1993, 91). We have found no record of an order or decree closing the mint, but it is known that on 28 November 1841, D. Fermin Canseco, by then Prefect of Arequipa, wrote to the Finance Minister (Cano) stating that the cylinders from the Arequipa mint were being sent by the first ship from Islay to Callao (A.G.N. O.L. 285-319, 22 November 1841). Of course, the cylinders were essential for the operation of the mint. In March 1842 the *Tribunal de Cuentas* (Tribunal of Accounts) suggested the formal closure of the mint because neither the salaries of the employees nor the rental on the building housing the mint had been made in about two years (Luque 1993, 88).

The other tools and machinery of the mint apparently remained in place for over seven years before being sealed in boxes (Luque 1993, 92). The ultimate disposition of the machinery is not known, although it has been suggested that the machinery may have been used to mint the fifth-soles of Arequipa in 1885 (Luque 1993, 93).

The documents referenced above provide some interesting (and surprising) information on the actual numbers of coins minted in Arequipa, particularly when combined with the data from the *Memoria de Hacienda* (Finance Report) of 1847 as summarized in the Appendix. The document of 18 May shows that a total of 17,179 marks of the fineness of coins was minted in 1838. The report of 1847 states that a little over 13,060 marks of eight dineros were minted in that year. Thus, one deduces that about 35,000 pesos were made in 1838.

In 1839, according to the report of 1847, 1,965 marks of silver, eight dineros fine were minted; while according to the record of 15 May 1841, 2,365 marks of the same were minted. Thus, between 33,405 and 40,205 cuatros were made in 1839, while between 108,519 and 111,919 pesos fuertes were made. More than twice as many crowns, therefore, were made in 1839 as cuatros. There is currently not enough information available to say how many of the pesos fuertes were made using the surface design and how many used the Republican design. In 1840, 28,016 cuatros and 84,736 pesos fuertes were made. In 1841, 17,000 pesos fuertes were made prior to 30 April; it is not known if additional coins were made in that year.

All of the pesos of Arequipa are currently considered rare coins. The mintage figures given above are therefore surprising: only 13,200 two reales were made in Lima in 1825, yet more of them survive than the Arequipa pesos of 1841, of which there are currently only two known examples. Benavides was undoubtedly correct in his observation that the pesos were being shipped to Europe as rapidly as they were produced. It is probable that they were melted down there, as were other coins of the period.

In any case, the work of this mint came to an end. The mintage was small compared to that of Lima and even of Cuzco. The lack of machinery, the lack of silver bullion, and the turbulent times all contributed to its problems. At the same time, the work of those associated with the mint must be respected as they sought to overcome the problems and produce the coins so needed in their part of Peru.

Appendix

Production of Coins in Arequipa

(For reading tables, see instructions immediately following them on page 103.)

1836

Folio	Dates	Documents	Marks (8 D)	Total Amt	Denom.	Fineness
14	Aug 19	46	392 5 9	2,286 7		
24	Sep 21	78	347 2 4	4,934 1		
59.ta	Oct 21	167	766 2 13	4,462 7 3		
64	Nov 22	181	1,006 6 3	5,932 7 8		
73	Dec 10	210	88 2 2	513 7 9		
Total			3,101 2 15	18,130 5 22		

1837

Folio	Dates	Documents	Marks (8 D)	Total Amt	Denom.	Fineness
-	Jan 1				1/2 R	7 23
2.ta	Jan 4	2	601	3,499		
-	Feb 1				1/2 R	7 23
7.ta	Feb 10	21	547	3,185 3 17		
12	Feb 24	34	784 1 6	4,586 5	1/2 R	7 23
17	Mar 11	54	854 4 4	4,976 3	4 R	7 19
23.ta	Apr 7	82	315 6	1,838 6	4 R	7 18
29	Apr 17	98	629 6	3,667 2 17	4 R	7 15
34	May 2	116	463 4 4	2,699 3	4 R	7 19
40	May 13	137	482 6 2	2,811 3	4 R	7 18
49	June 7	158	650 7 12	3,790 7 17	4 R	7 19
56	June 21	183	843 8	4,909 4 17	1/2 R	7 23
62	July 31	205	887 4 3	5,168 4	1/2 R	7 16
69	Sept 13	226	674 7 7	3,930 4	1/2 R	7 22
Total			7,734 6 4	45,073 6		

1838

Folio	Dates	Documents	Marks (8 D)	Total Amt	Denom.	Fineness
-	Jan 29				2 R	8 1
-	Feb 17				4 R	8 1
-	Mar 23				4 R	7 23
-	May 28				8 R	10 19
54.ta	June 19	159	4,200	24,458 7	4 R	8 0
65	July 2	191	3,907 3 2	22,754 7	4 R	8 1
72	Aug 11	216	1,500	8,735 2 17	4 R	7 23
77	Sept 10	236	1,186	6,911 6 17	4 R	7 23
82	Sept 29	255	634	3,688 1	4 R	8 0
88	Oct 23	276	1,279 4	7,451 2	4 R	7 8
90	Oct 27	285	351 4	2,046 7 22	4 R	8 0
-	Nov 21				8 R	10 19
Total			13,060 3 2	76,047 1 22		

1839

Folio	Dates	Documents	Marks (8 D)	Total Amt	Denom.	Fineness
-	Jan 7				8 R	10 20
-	Jan 22				8 R	10 16
-	Feb 9				8 R	10 19
-	Apr 3				8 R	10 19
-	May 29				8 R	10 19
-	June 13				8 R	10 19
-	June 21				8 R	10 19
30	July 17	104	900	5,241 1 20	4 R	7 22
-	Aug 10				8 R	10 19
-	Aug 13				4 R	7 22
-	Aug 20				8 R	10 19
-	Sept 4				4 R	7 22
46	Sept 16	160	125	727 7 18*	4 R	7 20
-	Sept 29				8 R	10 19
49	Sept 30	173	40	232 7 18	4 R	7 20
50	Oct 8	176	60	349 3 10	4 R	7 22
53	Oct 25	184	100	582 2 29	4 R	7 22
53.ta	Oct 28	187	100	582 2 29	4 R	7 21
-	Nov 2				4 R	7 21
57	Nov 23	199	160	939 6 4	4 R	7 22
-	Dec 11				8 R	10 18
-	Dec 12				8 R	10 21
63	Dec 18	221	280	1,630 4 26	4 R	7 22
-	Dec 21				8 R	10 19
65	Dec 21	227	200	1,164 5 23	4 R	7 20
Total			1,965	11,451 2 7		

* Given as 227 7 18 in the original document.

1840

Folio	Dates	Documents	Marks (8 D)	Total Amt	Denom.	Fineness
2	Jan 8	2	825	4,804 3 15		
4.ta	Jan 9	6	90	524 33		
6	Jan 24	10	212	1,324 4 25		
8	Jan 30	18	160	931 6 5		
9	Feb 1	21	100	582 2 29		
10.ta	Feb 1	25	25	145 4 24		
14	Feb 1	38	50	291 1 14		
16	Mar 10	40	50	291 1 14		
18.ta	Apr 1	45	57	331 7 18		
23	Apr 13	58	45	261 17		
24	Apr 15	61	34	198		
Total			1,648	9,686 1 24		

In these tables, taken from the "Memoria de Hacienda de 1847," the figures in the column headed "Marks" are to be read in a special way; for example, in the first entry, 392 5 9 means 392 marks, 8 ounces and 9 sixteenths. Similarly the third entry in the column headed "Total Amount" is read 4,462 pesos, 7 reales, 3 *maravedís* (with 34 maravedís to the real). The last two columns are taken from assay tests of 1840 (A.G.N. Legajo 108, August 31, 1840). There is a remarkable consistency between the dates given in both records, giving perhaps greater credence to the assay records of 1840.

We note the mintage of the four reales of 1837, suggesting that the coins were struck with a date of 1836 as was done in Cuzco.

Another record from 1840 is given in Villegas (1985, 457-8). According to him, this was published in June 1840 as a record of the amortization of the cut reales from 1 August 1836 until 27 October 1838. The data for 1836 and 1837 agree as to the number of renditions and the number of marks minted, while that for 1838 agrees as to the number of renditions, but gives a total of 16,384 marks minted in those renditions. Obviously, the numbers are not inconsistent. From this same record, one can infer that up to this point, the mint had not been very profitable. The costs of operating the mint had been 4,957 pesos 1 real in 1836, 11,969 pesos 6 reales in 1837, and 14,780 pesos 6 reales in 1838. When this was added to the cost of the cut reales and the bullion introduced, there appeared to remain only a profit of 612 pesos 3 reales in a little over two years of operation.

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Notre Dame de Fourvière
Bob Forrest, NI #2382

In the dark days of the Franco-Prussian war the good people of Lyon vowed that if the Virgin Mary staved off the Prussian threat to their city, then they would build a magnificent new church for her. Their prayers were answered, the city was saved, and in 1872 building began on the new Basilica of Fourvière. It was consecrated in 1896.¹

The name Fourvière is said to be derived from the Latin *forum vetus*, the old forum of Lugdunum, as Lyon was known in Roman times. This hilltop site has a commanding view over the present-day city, a church of some description has been there since perhaps the 9th century. Certainly by the 12th century it was a well-known place of pilgrimage. But a special veneration for the Virgin Mary seems to have developed there mainly in the 17th century when, as Notre Dame de Fourvière, she was deemed responsible for averting numerous bouts of plague. She was likewise deemed responsible for saving the city from the cholera epidemic of 1832. The Prussians, it might be said, were merely the latest in a long line of plagues.

The Basilica has often had a "bad press" as far as tourist guides go. Thus one describes it as "this gaudy mock-Byzantine creation—a riot of turrets and crenellations, marble and mosaic";² another as "an un-enchanting miasma of multicolored marble and mosaic";³ a third doesn't beat about the bush at all, calling it "hideous," and adding: "It is only of interest for the meretricious splendor of its marble and mosaic decoration in a depraved taste which should be seen to be believed."⁴ Alas, I have never been there myself, but from pictures of it I have to say that I would probably love it if I did go there. But then I am one of the few people to actually like the Victor Emmanuel II monument in Rome, so perhaps I had better not parade my enthusiasm too far!

Be that as it may, from what I have seen of the medals of Notre Dame de Fourvière, they seem to form a more varied and interesting series than the usual run of pilgrim souvenirs. Three examples are shown here 1-1/2 times actual size. It is difficult to be sure of dates, but the first two have the look of late 19th century productions, while the third is perhaps early 20th century.

The first (Figure 1), which is silver, has the Virgin and Child on the obverse, with reverse *SOUVENIR DE N.D. DE FOURVIERE*.

¹ My information is taken from the standard (English) guide to the basilica, on sale to visitors there.

² *France - the Eyewitness Travel Guide* (1996), p. 369.

³ *France - the Rough Guide* (1995), p. 790.

⁴ *France - the Blue Guide* (1994), p. 651.

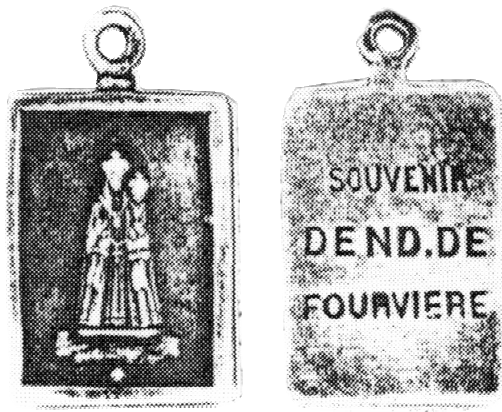


Figure 1

The second (Figure 2), again in silver, has on the obverse the Virgin Mary, her arms outstretched protectively over the town of Lyon which lies diminutively at her feet. The obverse legend is *ILS M'ONT ETABLIE GARDIENNE DE L.V.* (L.V. = *La Vile?*) meaning, "They have appointed me guardian of the town." (The Virgin Mary has been regarded as the special protectress of the town since she warded off the plague of 1643.) The reverse of the medal shows the Virgin and Child, attended by two angels, with legend *N.D. DE FOURVIERE P.P.N.* (P.P.N. = *Priez Pour Nous*).



Figure 2

The third (Figure 3), which is made of some white-metal alloy, has yet another Virgin and Child on the obverse, with legend *N.D. DE FOURVIERE PRJEZ POUR NOUS*. The reverse shows a view of the Basilica, with a lion lying in the foreground (presumably a homophonic symbol of Lyon), and with the legend *SOUVENIR DE N.D. DE FOURVIERE*.



Figure 3

But I have deliberately saved the best till last, for our final medal (Figure. 4), which is in silver and is shown actual size, is a stylish art nouveau adaptation of the obverse of Figure 3. Not that it is a medal which has been inserted into a jewelry mount as someone's personal whim: the piece was actually made that way, the whole being deftly cut in one piece from sheet-silver. (Incidentally, the back of the piece is totally flat and blank, with ne'er a hint of decoration.) Curious—and yet how in keeping, somehow, with the wedding-cake turrets and crenellations of the church itself; and what a refreshing change from the unimaginative oval or cruciform shapes of the generality of religious medals!

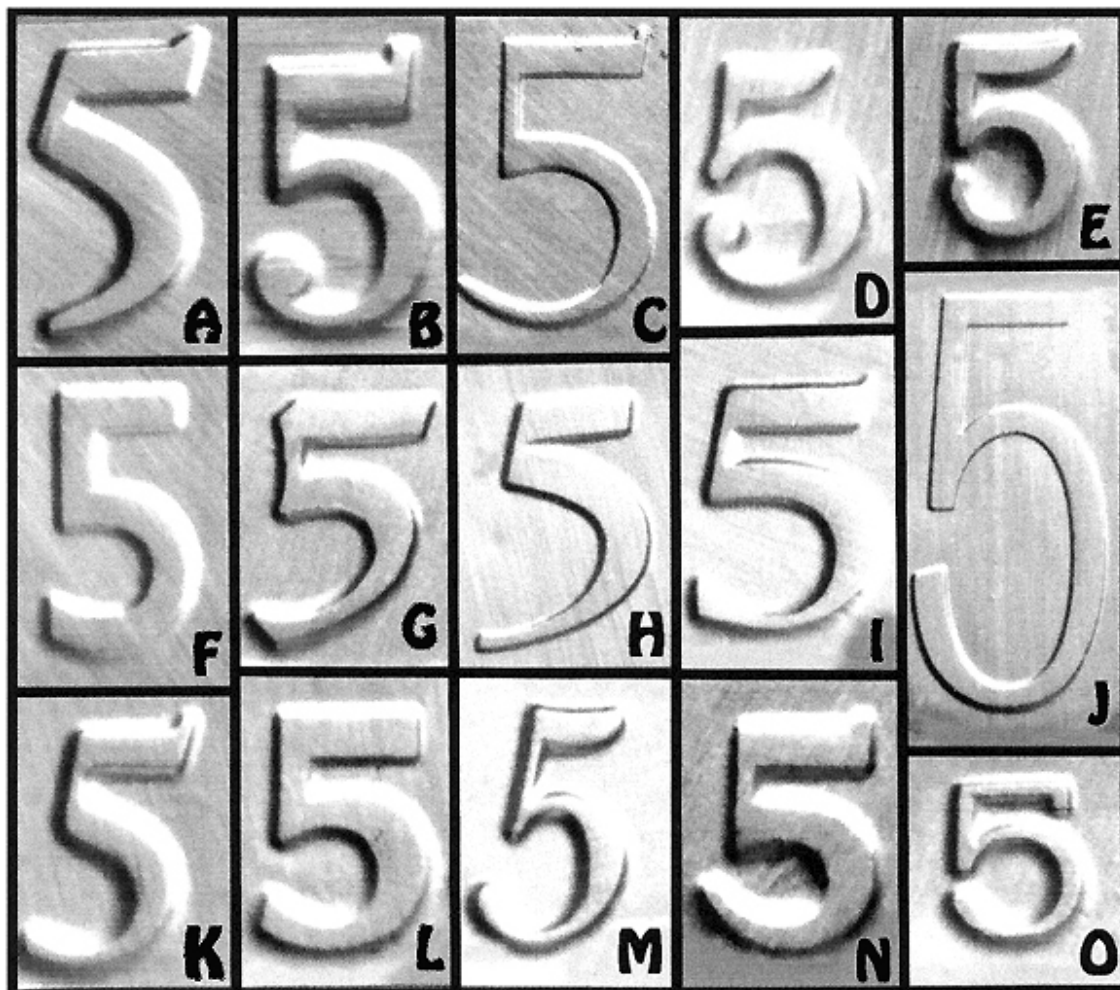


Figure 4

NI

Fabulous Fives
Bill Mullan NI #1040

After beginning to closely study the coins of East Germany I realized how many small differences the obverses presented. Previously I had looked at them on a catalog page and saw sameness throughout, especially when compared with the commemoratives of the Federal Republic of Germany, each of which had a different eagle on its obverse. I decided to make a game of it. So, here are 15 numeral fives taken from the obverses of 5-mark commemoratives of the German Democratic Republic. See if you can identify the coin from which these numerals came.



The fives in the picture came from photographs of coins identified below. The photos are actually of foil impressions I made of the coin obverses, which explains the striations apparent in some of the photos.

- A.) KM #129 Katharinen Kirche in Zwickau.
- B.) KM #64 125th Anniversary of the Death of Friedrich Ludwig Jahn.
- C.) KM #22 20th Anniversary of the GDR. Not KM #102.
- D.) KM #76 75th Anniversary of the Death of Adolph von Menzel.
- E.) KM #60 200th Anniversary of the Birth of Ferdinand von Schiller.
- F.) KM #135 Zeughaus Museum not KM #49 or 121.
- G.) KM #130 Marien Kirche in Mulhausen.
- H.) KM #98 150th Anniversary of the Death of Adolph Freiherr von Lutzow.
- I.) KM #90 Luther's Birth Place. KM # 85, 86, 96, 97, 103, 110, & 111 are similar. Not KM #72 or KM #79.
- J.) KM #68 Anti-Apartheid Year.
- K.) KM #30 Johannes Keppler.
- L.) KM #116 Berlin Universal Time Clock. Not KM #114.
- M.) KM #67 175th Anniversary of the Death of Friedrich Klopstock.
- N.) KM #29 (1987) Brandenburg Gate 36 & 37 are similar. Not KM #117 as illustrated in 1988 catalog.
- O.) KM #23 Heinrich Hertz.

I acknowledge that it is not fair to ask people to make judgments based on the illustrations in the catalog because some of the pictures are not clear enough to show some of the more subtle differences. In any event I hope you had fun with this exercise. If you did let, us know; and we will do it again sometime with the 10's and 20's.

NI

Quiz Answers:

Crown	Zimbabwe
Dinar	Bahrain, Iraq, Jordan
Dirham	Libya, UAE
Dollar	Zimbabwe
Ekuele	Equatorial Guinea
Franc	Morocco, Gabon
Khoum	Mauritania
Kwacha	Malawi, Zambia
Kwanza	Angola
Leone	Sierra Leone
Loti	Lesotho
Makuta	Zaire
Ngwee	Zambia
Pesawa	Ghana
Piastre	Tunisia, Sudan, Egypt
Riyal	Saudi Arabia
Shilling	Kenya
Tambala	Malawi
Zaire	Zaire

NI

Eight Reales of the Republic of Mexico (Part Three)

Ponterio & Associates NI #1221

(Part one published in *NI Bulletin* October 2006)

(Part two published in *NI Bulletin* November 2007)

Mexico City



8 Reales 1874/3-MH, mint mart M^O

Mexico City is the capital of Mexico, centrally located in the Distrito Federal (Federal District). It was originally founded by the Aztecs and later destroyed by the Spanish during the early 16th century and rebuilt shortly after. Mexico City was the first city in the New World to establish a mint and strike coins. The decree to establish a mint in Mexico City was written on May 11, 1535; however, the first coins were not struck until April 1536. The mint continued striking coins throughout the colonial & imperial periods and in 1823 it was the first to strike Republic 8 Reales. During the Republic period, it acted as the principle mint, supplying the other mints in Mexico with the necessary equipment for operations. The mint issued 8 Reales continually from 1823-97 with only two interruptions. The first was the French intervention during 1863-7, the second interruption was when 8 Reales were temporarily replaced by the Balance Scale Peso during 1869-1873.



8 Reales, silver pattern, no date (circa 1850)

Pattern circa 1850, 37.40 mm, 25.02 g with plain edge, coin die axis. Produced by Eugene Kurtz of Paris. A manufacturer specimen struck to provide Mexican mints with samples of their minting capabilities in order to sell them minting equipment.

Oaxaca



8 Reales 1861-FR, mint mark plain O. Die style of 1861-1864.

The city of Oaxaca is the capital of the southern Mexican state of the same name. Although Oaxaca's native people date back more than a thousand years, the site of the current city was founded by the Spanish in 1532. Oaxaca offers numismatists a plethora of material to study, especially in War of Independence and Revolutionary issues. The first coins were produced in colonial times during the War of Independence, issued by both Royalist and Revolutionary forces. The first Republic 8 Reales were produced in 1858 largely due to the efforts of the native Oaxacan President Benito Juarez. Die styles of the 8 Reales changed fairly often in the early years of the mint. It seems apparent that dies were not properly annealed and tended to break prematurely; in a few instances coins are found struck from dies with large die breaks spanning the complete length of the die. The short life of dies in the early period and the fact that the dies were probably locally engraved led to a wide variety of interesting styles. It is clear that 8 Reales were produced at more than one mint during the 1860's. For a more detailed explanation of this see Dunigan and Parker."¹ Republic 8 Reales were produced continually from 1858 until 1893 with two exceptions. The first of these events is the French intervention of 1865-6, at which time the mint was under the control of the forces of Maximilian. The second interruption was when 8 Reales were temporarily replaced with the Balance Scale Peso from 1869 until 1873.

Visit the Numismatics International Website
<http://www.numis.org>

¹ Mike Dunigan and J. B. Parker, *Resplandores: Cap and Rays 8 Reales of the Republic of Mexico, 1823-1897* (Beverly Hills, CA: Superior Stamp & Coin, 1997), pp. 322-332.

Potosi



8 Reales 1849-AM, mint mark P^l, medallic die axis

The city of San Luis Potosi, which is the capital of state of San Luis Potosi, is located in the central east portion of Mexico. The mint first opened and began to strike 8 Reales during 1827 and continued until 1893 with only two exceptions. The first is the French intervention from 1864-7; the mint struck Imperial coinage under Maximilian during this time. The second was when 8 Reales were temporarily replaced with the Balance Scale Peso in 1870 through 1873. The 8 Reales of this mint offer collectors a large number of rarities and a seemingly countless number of varieties, including overdates, assayer initials struck over other assayer marks, and varied placement of stops in the legends.



8 Reales 1829-JS, mint mark P^l, silver pattern

Pattern, 26.46gms, medallic die axis, milled edge. This pattern was probably produced by the Royal mint in London.

Visit the NI discussion group on internet:
<http://groups.yahoo.com/group/numismatics/>

Zacatecas



8 Reales 1856/5-MO, mint mark Z^S

The city of Zacatecas is the capital of the state of the same name, located centrally in Mexico. The city was originally founded in the mid 16th century as a result of large silver deposits found in the area. During the colonial period, the mines in Zacatecas were among the largest producers of silver in the Spanish New World, just second behind Potosi, Bolivia. A mint was first established by Royalist forces during the war of Independence in 1810, and it continued striking coins until at least 1822. The first Republic 8 Reales were struck in 1825; however, there is speculation that the mint had operated continually from its inception. After it had gained its independence, the Republic continued striking colonial coinage with the frozen date of 1821. The mint struck Republic 8 Reales continually from 1864 through 1897 with only two exceptions. The first is the French intervention from 1864-7, at which time the mint was under the control of Maximilian forces, although Republic coins were struck in all years but 1866. The second is when 8 Reales were temporarily replaced with the Balance Scale Peso from 1870-3.

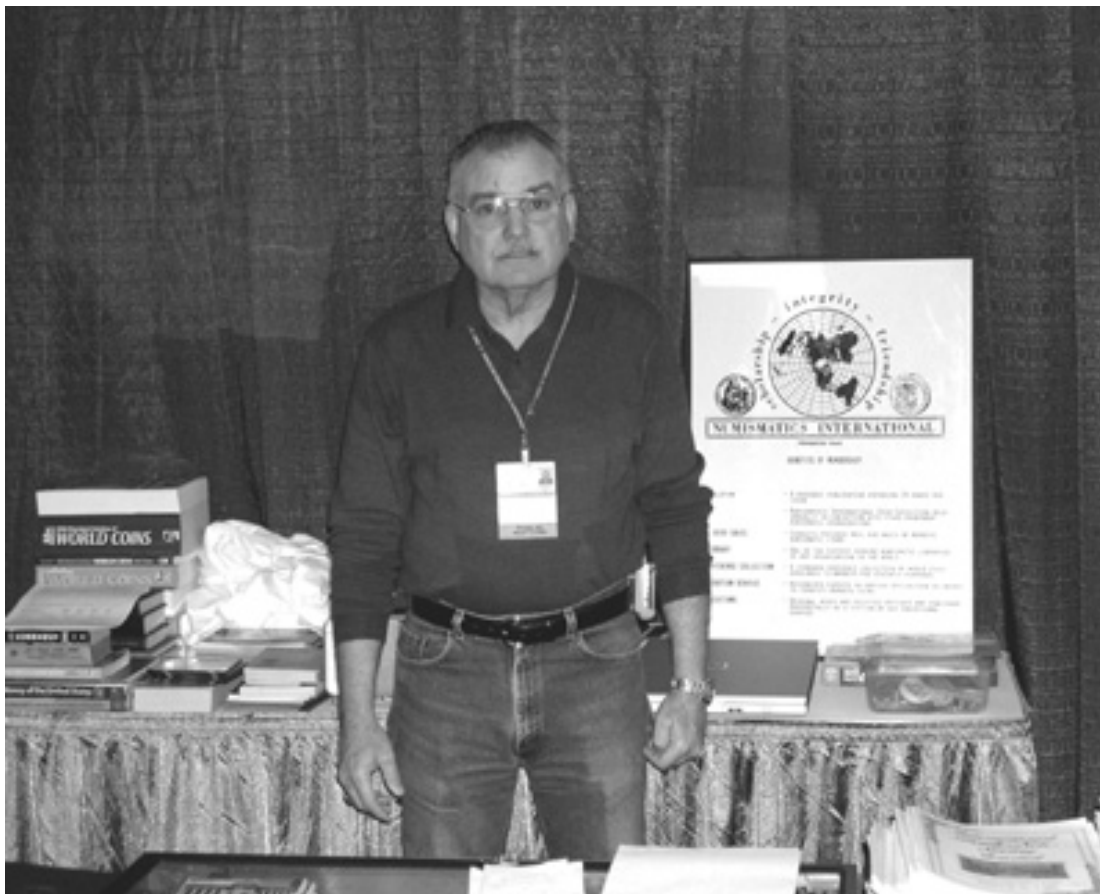
This article originally incorporated in Ponterio & Associates' catalog for sale #143, September 25 & 26, 2007.

NI

Kremnica Mint, Republic of Slovakia

Kremnica Mint is one of the oldest continuously operating manufacturers worldwide. Its story began on 17 November 1328, when the Hungarian King Charles Robert of Anjou promoted Kremnica, a settlement surrounded by rich gold deposits, to a free royal town and granted to it the privilege to operate a mint. Coins that started to be minted here were made of gold with a purity of 23 carats and 9 grains; as they followed coin patterns coming out of Florence, they were initially referred to as florins. Since a Latin inscription was found on a similar gold coin used in the town of Venice, ending with the words *iste ducatus* (this duchy), people started to call this type of coin a ducat, and the coins became historically known under just this name.

Continued on page 120



Howard at the NI table

NI member James Martin volunteered to help staff the club table and was of great assistance in making up the packets. He also donated a container of world coins. Ken Seymore was also a volunteer at the club table. The NI meeting on Saturday morning had James Martin, Halbert Carmichael, and Howard in attendance, we talked for a while before concluding the meeting.

International Paper Money Show, Memphis, Tennessee, June 27-29, 2008

Cook County Convention Center, 255 North Main, St., Memphis, TN 38103

World's Fair of Money, Baltimore, Maryland, July 30-August 3, 2008

Baltimore Convention Center, 1 West Pratt St., Baltimore, MD 21201

Howard will man a club table for NI (and IBNS, NBS & PCF) at both of these shows. Packets with world coins from NI (and a banknote from IBNS) will be given to young and new numismatists in the name of NI at this club table. And references will also be given to serious new collectors, scout counselors and teachers.

NI Members attending this show can contact Howard to volunteer to help man the club table. Anyone with coins, notes and/or references they want to donate can bring them to the club table and receive a thank you letter from Howard for their donation.

There will not be an NI meeting at the **International Paper Money Show**, which is primarily dedicated to paper money collectors.

World's Fair of Money, there will be an NI meeting at 12:00 noon on August 2 in Room 312. Attendees should bring one piece from their collection or a purchase from the bourse to use during the show and tell part of the meeting. A speaker for about 20-30 minutes of the meeting is still being sought at this time.

There will be a PCF (Philippine Collectors Forum) meeting at this show. Please contact Ray Czahor at CookieJarPI@Verizon.net for further information about the date, time and room number.

Please contact Howard at HADaniel3@msn.com if you have any questions about the meetings, shows or donations of coins, paper money and/or references.

NI

A Coin from Occussi-Ambeno
Howard Ford, NI LM#90

I recently received the first coin I had ever owned from the Sultanate of Occussi-Ambeno, an enclave on the Island of Timor, which is divided into East Timor on the northeast and West Timor on the southwest. The enclave is located in West Timor, right on the west coast, facing the Savu Sea. The obverse of the coin shows a large crown below the name of the issuing agency, the State Bank, which struck the piece in 1997, when Occusi-Ambeno was still a principality; it has since become a republic. The denomination is shown as \$50. Inside the obverse rim, the legend indicates that the coin is designed as a commemorative for the Chinese Lunar Calendar, specifically the Year of the Ox. The reverse legend states that the coin contains a half ounce of 999.9 gold. The design shows a mother Ox nuzzling her calf.



After I had purchased the above piece, I discovered two others from 1996. Both showed two of the Taiwanese government figures. With all of this emphasis on Chinese subjects, we might suspect that the population of the enclave might be heavily Chinese. This is not the case. Population figures indicate that Chinese make up only about 2% of the people, with 11% being Black Portuguese and 79% Timorese (<http://okusi1.tripod.com>).

NI

English Coin Types: A Continuing Series

The 1822 Maundy Set

Howard Ford, NI #LM90

George IV became King of England in 1820, after the death early that year of George III. The Maundy coins of 1820 show the portrait of the deceased king. In 1821 no Maundy sets were minted at all, so the 1822 set is the first made for the new ruler. The four coins in this set for George IV are unusual in that they contain a mixture of designs in the royal portraits. They have even more variation in the portraits than do the other sets for this monarch. As may be seen below, the 1 Penny and 2 Pence have a small head of the King. The 3 Pence also has a small head, but it is unusually small, having been made with a punch for the 2 Pence because the correct punch had been broken ((Richard Lobel and others, *Coincraft's 2000 Standard Catalogue of English and UK Coins 1066 to Date*. London: Coincraft, 1999, p. 563). The 4 Pence differs even more. It actually shows a large head of George IV.



4 Pence



3 Pence



2 Pence



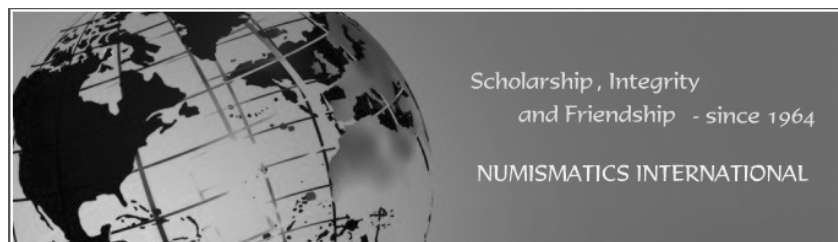
1 Penny

(Images enlarged 1.5×)

Although some sources fail to mention this fact, all later sets for George IV had a mixture of portraits (for example, Robert Friedberg, *Coins of the British World*. New York: Coin and Currency Institute, 1962, does not mention the small head coins at all). Until the end of the series in 1830, the Penny and 2 Pence always had a small head. On the 3 Pence, the small head appeared only in 1822, so it is a type all by itself (KM #685.1). Starting in 1823, the 3 Pence had a large head, which appeared every year through 1830 (KM #685.2); so the 3 Pence is the only denomination in the sets to change sizes of the portraits. Since the 4 Pence always used the large head, every year of the series had a mixture of designs, but no other date was so varied as the 1822.

The coins were ordinarily made in BU and also in a beautiful Prooflike BU. In 1822 and 1828 Proofs were also made (*Coincraft*, pp. 566-582 *passim*).

NI



Hansatsu: From Lifting the Ban in 1730 to the Late Edo Period
 Mari Ohnuki, Institute for Monetary and Economic Studies, Bank of Japan



(None shown actual size)

Left: Ohgaki Hansatsu, a note worth five *momme* (a mass of about 1/8 troy ounce) of silver issued by the Ohgaki clan of the Mino region in 1730.

Center: Hamamatsu Hansatsu (back), a note worth five momme of silver issued in an outlying part of Harima Province by the Tohtomi Hamamatsu clan in 1858. To prevent counterfeiting, it carried the Dutch word *voordeelig* (mutually advantageous).

Right: Kasasatsu from Kano; this *Kasasatsu* (umbrella note), issued by the Kano clan of the Mino region in 1859, bears an additional date stamp corresponding to 1867. A note worth one umbrella was equivalent to two momme of silver.

In 1730, the Tokugawa Shogunate lifted the prohibition on local issues of paper money (hansatsu) that had been in effect for 23 years, since 1707. Before rescinding the ban, the shogunate reminted gold and silver coins, restoring their value to that of the Keicho Period and abolished the rice tax that it had levied on provincial governments for almost a decade to improve its finances. In the same year, to regulate the price of rice, the country's staple food, the shogunate authorized the establishment

of a rice market on Dojima Island, near Osaka. The return of hansatsu to legality through this series of measures can be viewed as an attempt to rescue the clans, the foundation of the shogunate system, from the financial morass that had engulfed them.

The second generation of hansatsu issues was characterized by this currency's institutionalization: formal granting of authorization by the central government (shogunate), setting of limits of validity for the notes, and limitations on the volume of issues. It should also be noted that the rebirth of hansatsu resulted from the evolution of Japan's economy and society, which fueled growth in demand for currency as well as established clans' power over their internal affairs and engendered systems capable of enforcing obligatory use and the clan monopoly of paper money within the clans' domains. In addition, the growth of trade and commerce with distant partners led to the increasing acceptance of paper money, which had been intended solely for local use, outside the fief where it was issued.

This wider circulation of hansatsu notes led to increasingly frequent counterfeiting. The clans severely punished the printing and use of counterfeit money, and at the same time devised designs for the paper itself to make forgeries more difficult. Watermarking and tinting of the paper as well as the use of foreign words, special and hidden characters, and other printing devices are seen in many types of paper money issued by the clans.

Generally the issuance of hansatsu was entrusted to an influential merchant established in the clan's territory who printed the notes under the supervision of a clan official in charge of finances and currency. The issuing institution was called the *hansatsu-kaisho* (clan paper-money chamber). In fiefs where the clan exercised a monopoly in addition to issuing money, the region's commodity exchange or another body enforcing monopoly trading often served also as *hansatsu-kaisho*. In later periods, some clans monopolized trade in local specialties and, as a matter of policy, issued hansatsu to local producers, controlled trade with other clans, and exercised centralized control over the fief's specie and finances in an integrated fashion. The public generally put its trust in hansatsu issued for this purpose, as these clans maintained reserves at adequate levels by earning specie through monopoly trade. Examples include "umbrella notes" and "potter's wheel notes" issued by the Kano clan in the Mino region, famous for its umbrellas and light industry; these notes could be exchanged either for the stated weight of silver, although this was uncommon, or the stated equivalent amount of a commodity.

Gradually, the use of such notes became increasingly widespread; toward the end of the shogunate, paper money was issued to deal with famines, to buy weapons in the face of the threat posed by the "black ships" of Commodore Perry, to set up coastal defenses, and for similar purposes. As the shogunate collapsed, this currency system too was thrown into turmoil.

All images courtesy of Currency Museum, Institute for Monetary and Economic Studies, Bank of Japan.

NI

Hansatsu: The Early Meiji Period

Mari Ohnuki, Institute for Monetary and Economic Studies, Bank of Japan



Left: Sonobe Hansatsu. a note worth one kanmon, issued by the Sonobe clan in the Tanba region in 1868, the first year of the Meiji Period.

Right: Kameyama Hansatsu (note bearing the seal of the Ministry of Finance). This note was originally issued by the Kameyama clan in the Ise region. In accordance with new monetary regulations, Kameyama Hansatsu were assigned a value of one sen, four rin and carried the seal of the Ministry of Finance on the back. The red seal was affixed to the back of any new note worth less than five sen of copper.

(Images not actual size)



In 1867, direct Imperial rule was restored (hence the term Meiji Restoration) and a new government was formed in Japan. In February 1868, the new government decided to allow the reintroduction of older coins, including oval koban coins whose use had been suspended, in addition to the currency already in circulation. In May of the same year, the government banned the circulation of cho-gin (long oval silver slugs) and mameita-gin (bean-shaped silver slugs) and abolished the denomination of currency in silver units. As a result, prices for all commercial transactions had to be quoted either in gold or copper units. The banning of currency denominations in silver units was misunderstood, however, as meaning the abolition of silver notes, precipitating a panicky run on exchange houses by holders of silver notes. This caused great turmoil and confusion, and forced many exchange houses in Osaka into temporary closure or even bankruptcy.

As of April 1868, there were 281 feudal clans throughout Japan; 235 of them had issued their own local paper money (hansatsu), whose circulation was allowed even after the Meiji Restoration in 1867. Many feudal clans ordered people in their domain to use hansatsu instead of the specie issued by the Tokugawa Shogunate, making hansatsu the most important currency in the local domains. Even during the Meiji

Period, 158 feudal clans printed and issued hansatsu; of the 1,083 varieties, most were copper notes issued in exchange for silver notes.

As noted, after the Meiji Restoration, the monetary system suffered great confusion stemming from the continued issue and use of hansatsu by feudal clans (areas formerly controlled by local lords known as daimyo) and prefectures (areas formerly under the direct control of the Tokugawa Shogunate or the Imperial family). In these circumstances, to promote national circulation of *dajokan-satsu* (gold notes issued by the Dajokan, the predecessor of today's Cabinet), the government prohibited further issuing of hansatsu in December 1869.

Despite the prohibition, however, hansatsu did not die out. In 1871, the government promulgated the New Currency Act, which allowed hansatsu to be exchanged for the central government's currency at the exchange rate on the day of July when prefectures were officially established in place of the feudal domains. By doing so, the government managed to assign a valuation in terms of its new currency to each of the multiple types of hansatsu having the same face value, taking into consideration the financial soundness of their issuers. Before such exchanges began in earnest around 1873, several measures were taken to permit hansatsu to continue to circulate (with the new values fixed by the government) and to ensure that all hansatsu received by each prefecture in payment of taxes would be handed over to the central government and never reissued.

By this time, another problem had arisen: a shortage of small coins. The 10-sen copper coin was the smallest coin that could be used as legal tender, but under the New Currency Act of 1871 the issuing of smaller copper coins was not scheduled to begin until 1873. To remedy the shortage, another measure was taken to allow both hansatsu and new currency to be used interchangeably—but only hansatsu worth less than five sen of copper and with the seal of the Ministry of Finance affixed to the back, and circulating only in the domain where the hansatsu used to circulate—until new coins in small denominations became available to replace the hansatsu.

Such exchanges were completed before June 1879, and with this the history of hansatsu was brought to a close, both in name and in fact.

All images are courtesy of Currency Museum, Institute for Monetary and Economic Studies, Bank of Japan.



Continued from page 113

All Kremnica ducats were characterized by high and stable levels of purity, thanks to which they were considered the strongest currency in Central Europe. Available historical records report that 21.5 million ducats were minted in Kremnica Mint throughout its history. The aggregate value of this amount, measured at today's prices of gold, would be one billion US dollars (exclusive of the historical value).

Information from Kremnica Mint Website: http://www.mint.sk/onas_historia.php



Anatomy of the Psyche of Numismatists
Arthur J. Majewski
(Reprinted from *NI Bulletin*, Vol. 22, No. 4, April 1988)

Christianity's work ethic dictated that its adherents devote themselves solely to work, foregoing all enjoyment. Work and suffering insures salvation. With such demanding and restrictive concepts of living, which permeated society in America, the citizenry, to enjoy some pleasures, felt compelled to develop an inability to face reality and to live with fantasies.

Unlike the coin collectors of old, who readily admitted their motivation was history, knowledge and artistry, the modern numismatist finds it impossible to concede the pleasures he derives from his avocation. Instead subconsciously, to conform to the above demands, he feels the hobby is a shrewd investment and his occupation. The situation is reminiscent of the small boy who loves the little blond girl in the pink dress, but vehemently declares he cannot abide girls. He only carries all her books because he wants to develop his flabby muscles.

However, the most enchanting subconscious delusion many numismatists experience is the pervasive confusion of coin collecting with women and romance. Thus for numismatists, their collections represent subconscious love affairs with each new coin being an addition to the harem. Or each new coin equates to a romantic kiss.

This capacity for self-delusion to a degree where one cannot distinguish reality from myth is inherent. Like logic, it cannot be developed. It is either there or is absent.

Most foreign languages assign gender to each noun. For example, the French word for a fly is feminine, *la mouche*. But like Benny Hill, the British comedian, observed, one needs good eyesight to see the sex of a fly. A coin collection is a romance for the same reason that the fly is feminine in France.

Whereas ordinary men love their women for diverse reasons, such as, looks, money, status, conversation, vivaciousness and popularity, the numismatist, in addition to the above, must determine initially what type interests him:

American Beauties	This patriot is interested exclusively in home grown specimens.
Exotic Foreigners	Each collector selects his own type of foreigner which excites him.
Cultural	Here the ancient coins hold the allure.
Rich	Proof coins and rarities.
Flashy models	Medals with their artistic and historical illustrations spellbind these lovers.
Classy	To interest this selective group, there are gold and platinum emissions.
Teenagers	This indiscriminating collector accumulates modern coinage.
Any broad will do	The prime concern is to gather any specimens. If he were not a coin collector, this one would concentrate on baseball cards.

After the coin lover selects the type that intrigues him, he then graduates to picking individual specimens. The desirability of coins is based on their virginity. Unlike pregnancy which either exists or does not, coin collectors assume, with some exceptions, that a coin has seen some wear and tear. The degree of their virginity determines their value and appeal. They are ranked on a scale of nine. From the best to the poorest they are:

- | | | |
|---|--|------------------------|
| 9 | Cloistered Inmate:
This coin invariably is protected by a plastic shield to guard it against any touching. The coin has a halo (shined and polished surface). | Proof |
| 8 | Vestal Virgin:
Untouched and intended to remain so, Intended to be protected from the wicked ways of the world. | Brilliant Uncirculated |
| 7 | Proper Virgin:
This coin was touched, but only by her fiancée, and that once or twice. | Extra Fine |
| 6 | Slightly Spoiled Merchandise:
A very nice lady gone slightly astray. She would make an excellent housewife for the right man. | Very Fine |
| 5 | Wisecracking Flirt:
She is no prude. She has been around, but a nice lady. | Fine |
| 4 | Gum Popping Broad:
Hard Working lady, yet quite decent. Touching her does not hurt her or her reputation. | Very Good |
| 3 | Reformed Barfly:
She is called "Good," but solely out of charity. | Good |
| 2 | Waterfront Siren:
Experienced, hardened and coarse lass. | Fair |
| 1 | Bottom of the Barrel:
This is the end of the line, the pits. Only looks good to drunks. | Poor |

One would expect incidental touching and other minor defects could easily be concealed. However, the procedures developed to ascertain the true condition of coinage would put royal virginal examinations to shame. Batteries of experts equipped with various magnifying glasses and latest scientific knowledge devote hours to the project. Additionally, on request, one can obtain a certificate of authenticity, freedom from defects and an appraisal of the specimen's condition. Even then, the next suitor demands an inspection *de novo*. There are no surprise parties in numismatics.

This fixation on virginity among numismatists is so pervasive and obsessive that coin collectors forget for what coins and women were intended. Thus collectible coins are

placed on a pedestal. Since any touching soils the item, not even the owner, except as will be later explained, dares handle his own coins.

Considering the obsession mentioned in the preceding paragraph, it was only natural that numismatists should have adopted the precepts of conduct toward women innovated in the Age of Chivalry. Thus, we observe that coin collectors:

1. Do not touch their coins lest they "soil" them.
2. When necessity dictates they must touch them, then they do so in permitted places, on the fringes, never on the main areas.
3. It is never proper to see any defects in your own coins. Of others' coins, one can see short comings, but can never comment in the presence of the owner, except when he is attempting to unload her.

To approximate the (USA) beauty contest's ideal model figure 36-24-36, numismatics vital statistics strive not for perfection but for an adequate description. Hence, we see references to:

1. Obverse (face)
2. Reverse (back side)
3. Rim (overall personality)
4. Weight
5. Diameter
6. Metal (affluence)
7. Condition (degree of virginity)
8. Rarity (popularity, hard-to-get)

Coins, like French flies, being feminine, require and demand "airings." They need to get out. To accommodate them, numismatists have three favorite *little cafes*:

1. The bourse or coin show: This is a type of "singles bar" for coins. Here you can "pick up" new items or yours can be selected. This is no show, or at least it is a very minor part thereof.
2. The coin club: The meetings are devoted to talking of the beauties of yesteryear that got away, and what bargains they were or would have been. It is improper to interject your experiences of a similar nature, at least while they are talking. Instead, sympathy is required. Additionally there are some coin trades ("wife swapping") at the meetings. And occasionally, someone has some coins to sell.
3. Exhibitions: Like an attractive woman who feels she created her own beauty, the displayer of a private collection feels responsible for creating the artistry of his accumulation. This is known as the Pygmalion complex.

Considering the deep self deception required the infantile fantasies necessary and the unbelievable inability to recognize reality practiced in the avocation, why has coin collecting become so widespread and popular? The reasons are four in number:

1. It enables the faithful personalities, who subconsciously wish they were not, to lead romantically reckless lives.
2. Pursuit of inanimate love is far less expensive than the maintenance of a full blooded mistress.
3. Fantasy is far safer than reality. First, there is less chance of a bruised ego through rejection. And second, no chance exists of incurring an unmentionable disease which often results from this loose, but interesting, life style.
4. There is no objection to this love affair from the wife. Although the collector rationalizes that he is investing, for the wife, it may in reality evolve into such.

At this point, one drawback to life with lovable coins needs be mentioned. Numismatists are afflicted with a morbid and boundless fear of overpaying for the pleasures of a mistress. The fear verges on the pathological.

Before closing, to more fully appreciate the mentality of a coin collector, a brief finger tip dictionary is offered below:

Altered coins	Peroxide blonds of numismatics,
Awards	Beauty crowns bestowed for beauty or talent
Certificates of Authenticity	Marriage license for a coin collector
Coin shows	Slave markets
Duplicates	Bigamous wives
Exhibits	Beauty contests
Forgeries	Falsies
Manilla coin envelopes	Love nests
Paper money	Numismatic Paper Baubles
Penny bags	Miser's delight
Penny boards	Training bras for young collectors
Plastic Proof covers	Chastity belts
Transparent center coin envelopes	Peek-a-boo dresses

In conclusion, being a grown man, I submit numismatics would be enriched if we could face these realities:

1. Serving as a medium of exchange in trade is the sole purpose of coinage.
2. Collecting is but a subservient use of coin as relics of history. This enables modern man to experience living through the ages. Further to feel history, the items should have scars of time's battles.
3. Treating coins as goddesses and demanding that they be like Caesar's wife, beyond reproach, is counter-productive. If we must confuse coin with women, we should regard them as *fille de joies*.

Finally, let us consciously and openly declare:

1. Coin collecting is pure fun.
2. Collecting is not an investment.
3. Coins, women, investments, and joy need not be interrelated and intertwined.

Ptolemy's Alexandrian Postscript

Frank L. Holt

(Reprinted from *Saudi Aramco World*, November/December 2006)

One afternoon in 320 BC, crocodiles bloodied the Nile with the gore of a calamitous feast. More than 2000 men perished; far from the homes they had left behind many years before to conquer the world with Alexander the Great. Those veterans had survived epic battles, blizzards, disease and deprivation. More than once they had crossed the Nile, Tigris, Euphrates, Oxus and Indus Rivers on their way to the end of the world and back. They had outlived as many as six Macedonian kings, including Alexander himself, who had died in Babylon three years earlier.

It was the demise of Alexander at that time and place that delivered these hapless victims to the waiting jaws of patient crocodiles. First, Alexander died without a competent heir, which prompted his grasping generals to fight for all or parts of his realm. Among the contenders were Alexander's close friends Perdiccas and Ptolemy. The latter based his hopes on building an independent state in Egypt; the former (to whom Alexander had allegedly entrusted his signet ring) aimed to rule the whole empire. In the wars that followed, some of the conqueror's old soldiers served Ptolemy, while others sided with Perdiccas.

Thousands of the soldiers loyal to Perdiccas would eventually wade into the Nile and never walk out. They did so because of the second contingency of Alexander's death: The king was to be mummified and ceremoniously transported from Babylon to a burial place in Macedonia, all under the direction of Perdiccas. In a daring act of piracy, however, Ptolemy stole his friend's body and carried it off to Memphis in Egypt. This hijacking was more than just grand political theater: possession of Alexander was nine-tenths of the law in the competition for legitimacy, and Ptolemy had lofty plans for Alexander's remains. Perdiccas therefore responded in force, leading into Egypt the luckless force that became a crocodilian repast.

In Alexander's last great battle, he had crossed the Hydaspes River in India by outmaneuvering the forces of Rajah Porus. Now, the clash between Ptolemy and Perdiccas would also be decided by a cat-and-mouse game along the banks of a major river. As Ptolemy strengthened the defenses along his side of the Nile, Perdiccas on the opposite embankment probed for a weakness that would allow his army to cross. After failing near Pelusium, on the far eastern edge of the Nile Delta, Perdiccas tried to slip his troops across the river at the so-called Fort of Camels. Ptolemy was caught off-guard by this nighttime flanking maneuver, but rallied his men and reached the fort in time to save it. Perdiccas sent across successive waves of attackers, led by his corps of Indian elephants, but Ptolemy repulsed the pachyderms with Alexander-like élan, personally blinding the lead beast with a long spear and wounding its mahout. As the attackers faltered, Ptolemy fought conspicuously and inspired his Macedonian veterans to drive Perdiccas back across the river to the eastern bank. The demoralized invaders realized too late that Perdiccas at the Nile would not be able to emulate Alexander at the Hydaspes.

Still, Perdiccas convinced many of the survivors to make another night march upstream where they might sneak across the Nile above the Delta, near Memphis. This time it was nature, not Ptolemy that crushed Perdiccas's dreams.

As the first of his weary troops forded the river, the water came up to their chins, and a strong current tugged at their legs. Perdiccas therefore posted a line of elephants to their left in order to break the Nile's flow. A corresponding file of cavalry waited to their right, downstream, to catch any man swept off his feet. All went well until, without any warning, the river inexplicably rose and desperate soldiers began to drown. The safety net of cavalry was insufficient to rescue the perishing, and soon crocodiles were seen gorging themselves on the weakest swimmers. A thousand men were killed by the beasts, and as many more were devoured after they drowned. The debacle shocked even the most callous veterans of a violent age of conquest. Alexander's signet ring could no longer save poor Perdiccas, whose remaining troops stabbed him to death within hours of the catastrophe. The course of history had been decided in Ptolemy's favor by a river and its dreaded carnivores.

With his victory clear, Ptolemy gave the vanquished invaders as much aid as possible, and he allowed the stunned survivors to leave Egypt at their leisure. What remained of the dead was gathered and solemnly cremated, and Ptolemy shipped the bones of the victims back to their grieving families in Macedonia. Enjoying great acclaim for his good fortune and generous spirit, Ptolemy's reputation soared.

In the first years following Alexander's death, Ptolemy (like the other so-called Successors) continued to mint the traditional coinage that had been issued by his hero. The main type of coin had shown Alexander's putative ancestor Herakles (Hercules) wearing on his head the lion scalp that commemorated one of his legendary labors. It was, after all, normal Greek practice to reserve the "heads" side of a coin for the portrait of just such a god or goddess: Athena at Athens, Persephone at Syracuse, Helios at Rhodes and so forth. Then Ptolemy dared take a step that has stirred no end of debate among scholars—one that, in essence, threw a rock into the still waters of Greek art and religion, sending great ripples outward through time and place to Sicily, Syria, Rome and beyond. Ptolemy replaced the portrait of Herakles on Alexander's posthumous coinage with a stunning image of another god—Alexander himself.

On these new coins, Alexander wears the scalp of an Indian elephant in the same way Herakles wore the lion pelt. Alexander also sports the aegis of Zeus, a scaly bib that could create thunder and ward off enemies. The aegis appears around Alexander's neck, tied in place by the knotted bodies of two writhing snakes. In addition, these coins show above Alexander's ear the unmistakable ram's horn of the Egyptian deity Ammon (identified as Zeus by the Greeks). It was a conspicuous case of identity theft, as Ptolemy appropriated for Alexander the singular characteristics of the Graeco-Egyptian god. Ptolemy's Alexander is Zeus/Ammon.

According to experts, Ptolemy thus not only exalted his hero but, by doing so, also elevated his own status as the caretaker of that hero's corpse—now not just the body of a great leader, but of a god. A legitimizing cult of Alexander could thereby be established at Memphis and later moved to Alexandria, along with the mummy itself.

In the reflected glory of the conqueror, Ptolemy could found the independent Egyptian state that he yearned to rule as king.

Ptolemy's portrait of Alexander deified proved to be so potent that rivals such as Lysimachus in Thrace and Seleucus in Syria soon imitated its main features: ram's horn, aegis and elephant scalp. Only the popularity of the elephant head-dress has puzzled scholars, since it had no obvious connection to the iconography of Zeus/Ammon. Why Ptolemy dressed Alexander in this fashion, calling attention to India rather than Egypt, has remained a mystery until a recent dazzling discovery from Afghanistan yielded up a single artifact that changes all of our assumptions about Ptolemy's famous Alexander portrait.



(Not actual size)

Ptolemy's coin showed Alexander as Zeus, with the ram's horn of Ammon curving subtly above his ear. Scholars have wondered why Ptolemy showed him with an elephant scalp rather than the traditional lion scalp of earlier coins depicting Herakles.

Imagine for a moment a treasure chest groaning under the weight of a thousand pounds of jewels, silver goblets, gold statuettes and the rarest of royal coins. Now picture a stash of nine such coffers—not merely a king's ransom, but a whole dynasty's—all rising from watery depths to sparkle in daylight for the first time in centuries. These are neither the spoils of Spanish galleons nor the sunken trove of a lost Sindbad. They are the equivalent mass of a single hoard hauled from a nondescript Afghan well in 1992, (See "The Marvels of Mir Zakah," below). Among its massive contents lay a lump of gold no larger than a humble US penny. Out of tons of treasure, it weighs less than an ounce, and yet it tips the balance of history in a new way.

On one side of the coin-like artifact can be seen a beautiful rendition of the same portrait that Ptolemy put on his money: Alexander gazes upward with large expressive eyes and pursed lips, his head covered in the scalp of an elephant. The *aegis* drapes around his neck, and the ram's horn curls from his temple. A hint of

Alexander's wild mane manages to escape the edges of the headdress, while several longer strands drift down around his ear. A beaded circle frames the image. This portrait is a masterpiece, a treasure one might easily attribute to the same workshops in Egypt that produced the coins of Ptolemy. But turn the artifact over—and nothing less than an elephant stands in the way of any such attribution.

The Indian elephant appearing on the reverse, along with the same set of distinctive Greek monograms, identify this as a unique new variety of elephant medallion issued by Alexander himself to commemorate his campaigns in India. (The silver specimens of this series tell the story of the battle against Rajah Porus along the banks of the Hydaspes River in 326 BC, as reported in "Stealing Zeus's Thunder.") On each medallion, an Indian elephant provides the subtext for the numismatic narrative, and on one small variety, the pose of the pachyderm closely resembles that on the Mir Zakah gold artifact. The other sides of each silver piece feature, in sequence, the main Indian units overcome by Alexander's army: the four-horse chariots and the native archers with their huge, powerful bows. Finally, on the large silver medallions, the desperate flight of Porus on one side is capped on the other by the compelling image of Alexander being crowned victorious by the goddess Nike. In Alexander's right hand rests a thunderbolt, the divine weapon of Zeus, symbolizing the supernatural power wielded that day by Alexander. Since monsoon storms played a pivotal role in the defeat of Porus's chariots and archers, Alexander takes full credit for them on these medallions.

The Mir Zakah coin, believed to be the only lifetime portrait of Alexander the Great, clearly shows both the horn of Amon—indicating his status as a god—and the elephant scalp and the aegis that symbolized the divine intervention that won him victory at the Hydaspes River. With this artifact, for the very first time, we in the modern world can see Alexander as he saw himself. Ptolemy merely copied what his former sovereign had already coined.

That alone would stand as one of the most audacious claims of any leader in history, but the gold medallion shows us that Alexander actually went further by commissioning an image that unequivocally identified him not just as god-like in his exercise of power, but as a deity in his own right. Thus, the portrait style that experts believed was Ptolemy's innovation proves to be a bolder one still by Alexander himself. Ptolemy merely copied what his former sovereign had already conceived and coined.

For the very first time, we in the modern world can see Alexander as he saw himself. This is the only official lifetime portrait of the conqueror that has survived the ages, though just barely. It is, as well, the actual "rock" whose religious and artistic splash has rippled across the centuries—and now we know it was thrown not by Ptolemy, but by Alexander himself. This fact also explains at last the elephant scalp on the coins issued by Ptolemy, who faithfully rendered the prototype.

The larger question is why Ptolemy chose to imitate a gold medallion so closely tied to a particular battle in far-off India, and not some other. Certainly, the theological implications of the portrait provide one answer, especially in the context of Ptolemy's struggle for Alexander's relics. The peculiar circumstances of that conflict may give

us another clue. The elephant medallions copied by Ptolemy had been designed to give Alexander credit for the fortuitous storms that gave one army advantage over the other. In the campaign of Ptolemy against Perdiccas, too, it was not only crocodiles, but also a strange meteorological phenomenon that decided the issue. Many of those who witnessed the sudden rise of the Nile wondered if a fateful thunderstorm somewhere in Upper Egypt had surreptitiously dumped enough rain into the river to trap Perdiccas's troops in the deadly surge that swept them into the reptilian maws. From Ptolemy's vantage point, the same divine hand may have been at work in both miracles, as if the man-god copied from the elephant medallions had personally intervened on Ptolemy's behalf. That's a message that would make much sense on the coinage of Egypt. Perdiccas had lost both Alexander's body and his divine favor, much to the delight of the man who would be king—and of the crocodiles of his nascent realm.

Editor's note: Image of silver coin substituted with that of CNG, original illustrations including the gold medallion may be seen on Saudi Aramco World website:
<http://www.saudiaramcoworld.com/issue/200606/ptolemy.s.alexandrian.postscript.htm>

The Marvels of Mir Zakah

The tiny village of Mir Zakah lies about 50 kilometers northeast of Gardez along the ancient trail from Ghazni (in today's Afghanistan) to Gandhara (Pakistan). Countless pilgrims, criminals, warlords and refugees have passed through these badlands from Alexander's era till today. In the third century, one or more such travelers—for reasons still unknown—dumped into a roadside watering hole what can only be described as the most amazing hoard in history.

The first inkling of the old well's secret came in 1947, when a villager spied something interesting at the bottom of her water bucket. Fingering an ancient gold coin, she screamed out "Zarin! Zarin! (Gold! Gold!)" to her startled neighbors. In response to her cries, a crowd of local diggers soon fetched about 13,000 more coins from the well. Eventually satisfied that everything of value had been salvaged, the residents of Mir Zakah returned to the routines of daily life.

A heavy spring rain 45 years later stirred up another gold coin. Word of the discovery traveled quickly to area warlords desperate for money to finance the long and dismal civil war. Rumors of treasure then reached the Kissakhani Bazaar along the border in Peshawar, touching off an international competition to purchase whatever the villagers of Mir Zakah could find and smuggle into Pakistan. A rough alliance of warlords, gangsters, antiquities dealers and greedy collectors converged in a well-equipped treasure hunt using generators, water pumps and large levies of workmen with shovels and pickaxes. One ancient coin became a hundred, then a thousand, later a hundred thousand—and finally more than a half-million. In the end, the Mir Zakah well yielded more than four tons of coins and 770 pounds of other gold and silver artworks. The finds included a variety of Greek, Persian and Indian artifacts. Nothing quite like this hoard had ever been seen before, and nothing like it may ever be seen again. It was as if someone had found a world-class museum at the bottom of a hole—only to sell off the contents without a moment's regard for its value to the common heritages of history and humanity.

In 1993, a Pakistani journalist with a collector's eye spotted the gold elephant medallion in a potato sack bulging with treasures from Mir Zakah. Initial efforts to purchase the medallion failed, but over time, an agreement was reached, and the Pakistani buyer carried off his prize to London. There, from the relatively safe haven of a private collection, the unique artifact cast into history by Alexander the Great himself continues to send ripples through time.



Coin Quiz

Bob Fritsch, NI #LM134

Kwanzas or Kwachas, Dollars or Dinars: This month's quiz is simple. Just match the denomination with the country that uses it. Be careful though, some denominations are used by more than one country and some countries have more than one denomination listed. Some denominations are obsolete, some are current. Good Luck!

Denominations	Countries
Crown	Angola
Dinar	Bahrain
Dirham	Egypt
Dollar	Equatorial Guinea
Ekuele	Gabon
Franc	Ghana
Khoum	Iraq
Kwacha	Jordan
Kwanza	Kenya
Leone	Lesotho
Loti	Libya
Makuta	Malawi
Ngwee	Mauritania
Pesawa	Morocco
Piastre	Saudi Arabia
Riyal	Sierra Leone
Shilling	Sudan
Tambala	Tunisia
Zaire	UAE
	Zaire
	Zambia
	Zimbabwe

Answers may be found elsewhere in this edition.

